

NOVEMBER

SIXTH YEAR — No. 68

International Review of the Red Cross



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1966

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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

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FRENCH EDITION OF THE REVIEW

The French edition of this Review is issued every month under the title of *Revue internationale de la Croix-Rouge*. It is, in principle, identical with the English edition and may be obtained under the same conditions.

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THE INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

*is published each month by the
International Committee of the Red Cross*

7, avenue de la Paix, 1211 Geneva I, Switzerland
Postal Cheque No. 12.1767

Annual subscription : Sw. fr. 25.— (\$6)
Single copies Sw. fr. 2.50 (\$0.60)

Editor: J.-G. LOSSIER

The International Committee of the Red Cross only assumes
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**THE PRINCIPLES
OF
INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW¹**

by J. Pictet

III

3. Principles proper to the victims of conflicts

PRINCIPLE OF NEUTRALITY

Humanitarian assistance is never an interference in a conflict

The word “neuter” comes from the Latin *ne-uter*, which means, neither the one, nor the other. Neutrality is an essentially neutral notion. It qualifies above all the abstention of someone who remains outside a conflict who does not openly express an opinion of either side.

In international law, neutrality is the opposite of belligerency. It is the position adopted, in relation to two Powers at war, by a State not taking part in the struggle. The status of neutrality regulated by juridical rules and in particular by the Hague Conventions involves rights and duties. In short, it implies refraining from taking part officially, either directly or indirectly, in hostilities. In the first place, therefore, it is a concept of an essentially military character. However, as a result of a recent evolution in events and thought, some people tend to think that neutrality should also have effect in the economic sphere, in view of its importance today in the war potential of countries.

¹ See *International Review*, September, October 1966.

The first Geneva Convention contains a great humanitarian idea which goes far beyond its provisions, namely the safeguarding of the wounded. This notion is that lending assistance even to the adversary is always lawful, that it never constitutes a hostile act, nor does violence to neutrality. This moreover is the express meaning of article 27, paragraph 3, of the First Geneva Convention of 1949 which deals with the assistance which an aid society of a neutral country can render a party to a conflict. The Convention stipulates: "in no circumstances shall this assistance be considered as interference in the conflict".

One can now consider the principles of application.

1. *In exchange for the immunity granted to it, medical personnel should refrain from any hostile act.*

Under the terms of the Convention of 1864, ambulances and military hospitals were "recognized as neutral". Medical personnel, for their part, were to "have the benefit of the same neutrality". The expression neutrality made it clearly understood that the wounded were no longer enemies and that those caring for them were removed from the struggle. However, since this word has a more restricted meaning in the legal sphere, it was not suitable for a treaty. In addition, it introduced an ambiguity; one might think that medical formations would lose their nationality, which is not the case. This term was therefore no longer used and mention was made only of respect and protection irrespective of nationality. However, that idea of neutralization has none the less continued to exist and the term itself retains all its value in current speech.

Immunity accorded the establishments and personnel of the Army Medical Service, as well as those of the Red Cross, means that such personnel refrain absolutely from all interference, whether direct or indirect, in hostilities. Considered by the enemy as being "neutral", in the higher interest of the wounded, they are under an obligation to behave as such. Above all, they must guard against committing what the Convention calls "acts harmful to the enemy", that is to say, acts whose object or effect would be favouring or impeding military operations, be of harm to the forces of the adverse party. They may be armed, but solely to maintain order as

well as in their own defence and that of the wounded in their charge against acts of brigandage.

2. Medical personnel are given protection as healers.

If doctors and nurses are granted, even in battle, fairly considerable privileges it is not for themselves. It is solely because they give treatment to the victims. Through them one is still aiming at the wounded. Doctors are protected in their capacity as healers and it is moreover the finest tribute one could pay them.

It was also in the interest of the victims laid down in 1864, that medical personnel fallen into enemy hands should be repatriated. Again in the interest of the victims stipulation was made in 1949 in a diametrically opposite sense, justifying the retention in prisoner of war camps of some medical personnel to care for their compatriots in captivity.

3. No one shall be molested or convicted for having given treatment to the wounded or sick.

This principle is practically similar to that laid down in article 18, paragraph 3, of the First Geneva Convention of 1949. This clause gives a decisive answer to the painful problems raised during the Second World War and immediately afterwards in many countries ravaged both physically and morally by the conflict. In fact men and women had then been killed, imprisoned or molested for having nursed wounded partisans or parachutists, or for having worked in the Medical Service of the Red Cross Society of an occupying country. Such rigorous measures were absolutely contrary to the spirit of the Geneva Convention and the principle of neutrality.

If the most immediate military interests, which were moreover misunderstood, had prevailed in 1864 it could have been thought that the wounded who could be healed would remain harmful adversaries. Similarly, the Medical Service which helped the military potential by enabling combatants to be "recovered", would not have been protected. There would not then have been the Geneva Convention and those having cared for the enemy would have been considered traitors. This concept, however, did not prevail and States

when signing the Conventions, agreed to forego national interest in favour of the discharge of their conscience. That is the outstanding feature of the Red Cross.

One point remains to be examined. Are prisoners of war neutralized? We would say no, or not completely.

Indeed, their lives are saved because they have laid down their arms. They can only be obliged to undertake work outside the war effort, so as not to make turn-coats out of them. They cannot be used to render certain places safe from military operations.

On the other hand, they remain soldiers still belonging to their countries of origin, more often than not they wear uniforms with badges of rank. Above all, if they escape and are recaptured they undergo only disciplinary punishment. It is for the Detaining Power to take effective guard measures. It is not considered illegal for a prisoner to seek to escape. In this connection a characteristic provision is article 87, paragraph 2, of the Third Convention of 1949, which lays down, as regards penalties incurred by prisoners of war for infractions committed: " . . . the courts or authorities of the Detaining Power shall take into consideration, to the widest extent possible, the fact that the accused, not being a national of the Detaining Power, is not bound to it by any duty of allegiance, and that he is in its power as the result of circumstances independent of his own will ".

However, we could not disapprove more of the tendency recently shown in certain military circles of considering the prisoner as remaining a combatant of his own army of origin and that he has a duty to do all he can to harm the Detaining Power. This cannot but result in weakening the status of the prisoner and encroaching on the protection which humanitarian law has so painfully achieved for him after centuries of effort.

PRINCIPLE OF NORMALITY

Protected persons must be able to lead as normal a life as possible.

This notion proceeds from a reasonable compromise between humanitarian aspirations and the necessities of war. From this derives a principle of application.

Captivity is not a punishment, but only a means of keeping an adversary from being in a position to do harm. Any rigorous measure exceeding this object is unnecessary.

The prisoner of war is therefore not a slave. Captivity is not infamous, nor does it imply any *capitis diminutio*. We have already seen that the prisoner's civilian capacity can only be reduced in so far as captivity demands. Constraint is justified to the extent required for the maintenance of discipline. Its use would be inadmissible for the purpose of extracting information from a captive.

Prisoners will be released and repatriated as soon as the reasons for captivity have ceased, that is to say, at the end of active hostilities.

As regards the civilian population, it should, in occupied territory, be able to live normally. Civilians can only be interned for imperious reasons of security. In such case, they will benefit from treatment similar to that of prisoners of war, taking their civilian status into account.

In enemy territory, civilians, except for security reasons, will be authorized to leave the country. If they remain, they will be treated like all other aliens.

PRINCIPLE OF PROTECTION

The State must ensure the protection, both national and international, of persons fallen into its power.

Its principles of application are as follows:

- 1. The prisoner is not in the power of the troops who have captured him, but of the State on which these depend.*
- 2. The enemy State is responsible for the condition and upkeep of persons of whom it has guard and, in occupied territory, for the maintenance of order and public services.*
- 3. The victims of conflicts shall be provided with an international protector once they no longer have a natural protector.*

The first two principles are self-evident. As regards the third, it should be pointed out that the natural protector is the State of origin and that the international protector is the protecting Power

and, to a subsidiary extent, the International Committee of the Red Cross, which undertakes the neutral control of the Geneva Conventions' application. Prisoners and internees have the right to address their complaints to the controlling bodies, whose delegates are authorized to visit camps and talk with the prisoners without witnesses.

Should, for some reason or other, the victims not benefit from the activity of a protecting Power, the detaining State must resort to the services of a substitute, such as the International Committee of the Red Cross.

4. Principles proper to the rules of war

We now come to the principles governing the law of The Hague and which owe their origin to the great principle of the law of war, already discussed above and according to which "the right of belligerents to adopt means of injuring the enemy is not unlimited". It should at once be pointed out that these precepts are not all included in the Hague Conventions. In fact, they date from 1907, whilst the first bombardment from the air took place in 1911. We have therefore given completion to their substance by means of the customary rules and general principles in law.

From this important principle three others are derived:

PRINCIPLE OF THE "RATIONE PERSONAE" RESTRICTION

Belligerents will leave non-combatants outside the area of operations and will refrain from attacking them deliberately.

From the concept of the necessary balance between the aims and methods of warfare one has arrived at the fundamental distinction between combatants and non-combatants, the "evil doers" and the "innocents" according to Suarez. Whilst the former are necessarily the object of a war and constitute the essential factor of resistance to overcome, the latter should not be involved in hostilities, all the more since they have no right to take part in them. This general immunity of the civilian population has not been

clearly defined in positive law, but it remains, in spite of many distortions, the basis of the laws of war.

It should be mentioned that the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross, meeting in Vienna in 1965, formulated, amongst the rules applicable to civilians in conflicts, the following principles: “ it is prohibited to launch attacks against the civilian population as such ” and “ distinction must be made at all times between persons taking part in the hostilities and members of the civilian population, to the effect that the latter be spared as much as possible ”.

From this first notion two principles of application are derived.

1. Only members of the armed forces have the right to attack the enemy and to resist him.

This then is the corollary to the general rule, namely, that States and not individuals wage wars for their own political ends and if non-combatants are spared, it is because they remain outside the struggle.

On the other hand, it is at their own risk and peril that civilians reside in places where military operations take place and it is quite certain that these risks have greatly increased with the development of the methods of warfare. However, as Vitoria once said, the deaths of innocent people, if these occur, will always be accidental and will never be sought deliberately. From this follows that:

2. Belligerents will take all precautions to reduce to a minimum the damage to which non-combatants will be subjected in actions directed against military objectives.

Such precautions will consist, for example, in carefully selecting military targets from which the civilian population will be removed, directing attacks with utmost precision, refraining from bombing zones and encouraging measures of civil defence.

PRINCIPLE OF THE “ RATIONE LOCI ” RESTRICTION

Attacks are only legitimate when directed against military objectives, that is to say whose total or partial destruction would constitute a definite military advantage.

A distinction has always been made between the zone of hostilities and the rear. Such distinction has a purely technical origin, the theatre of hostilities having been determined by the advance of troops and the carrying of fire-arms. Until the appearance of bomber aircraft, rear areas were in point of fact sheltered from hostile action. It is on this old concept that was founded the conventional laws of war, principally articles 25 to 27 of the Hague Regulations. Where mention is made in these texts of bombardments, these were "bombardments of occupation", whereas since then, aviation has given rise to "bombardments of destruction" which aim at targets located behind the lines. Nowadays all belligerent territory can be considered as being the theatre of military operations. The Regulations of 1907 still apply to the fighting areas; they are no longer applicable to the rear. They therefore require drastic revision in the light of the general principles and the spirit of the laws of war.

The Geneva Conventions have foreseen the possibility of creating "safety zones" to shelter those elements of the population most deserving of protection, such as the wounded, the sick and children. However, their clauses have made this optional rather than obligatory. A great deal has been said about such zones, but in point of fact one can find practically no examples of their ever having been established. If one were once to broach this subject on the level of practical realization, one would have to make sure of avoiding the undeniable danger which this idea would entail: that of decreasing the safety of other parts of the territory. In fact, if one were to say that such zones were protected, some belligerents might deduce that the remaining enemy territory is less protected. Here, as elsewhere, one should not drop the substance for the shadow.

There are still two more principles of application to be formulated:

1) *Belligerents will spare, in particular, charitable, religious, scientific, cultural and artistic establishments, as well as historic monuments.*

This stipulation has its origin in the Geneva Conventions as regards the safeguarding of military and civilian hospitals, and in

the Hague Regulations as well as the Convention concluded in The Hague in 1954, under Unesco auspices, concerning the protection of cultural property.

2) It is prohibited to attack localities which are undefended.

This is the rule of article 25 of the Hague Regulations which has long been considered as the basis of the law of “classical” warfare. The subsequent development of war aviation has rendered such a concept illusory as regards rear areas in which the notion of military targets has replaced it. It is however still valid in zones of land fighting. When localities offer no resistance to the enemy and can be occupied by it without combat, it is in the primary interest of the population to avoid all unnecessary fighting and destruction.

It has been established custom to declare as “open towns” all urban centres deprived of any military character and which will not be defended should the enemy arrive in the area.

3) Looting is prohibited, as is unjustified destruction or seizure of enemy property.

Only imperious necessity connected with the course of military operations can justify destruction or seizure. Looting is prohibited in all its forms and in all circumstances.

PRINCIPLE OF THE “RATIONE CONDITIONIS” RESTRICTION

Weapons and methods of warfare likely to cause excessive suffering are prohibited.

The standard here is of another nature. It is no longer a question of only sparing persons not participating in hostilities, but one also of avoiding for the combatants unnecessary losses or suffering which exceed those required to place the enemy hors de combat. To this end, certain weapons and methods of warfare must not be employed. These are:

a) Weapons causing unnecessary harm.

The Hague Convention and the St. Petersburg Declaration prohibited the use of barbed or poisoned arms, explosive projectiles

or those which spread throughout the body (dum-dum bullets). One may ask whether napalm and darts of high velocity should not be included in this category.

b) *Indiscriminate weapons.*

This concerns weapons which not only cause great suffering but do not allow sufficient precision in their use, or whose effects risk spreading in an uncontrollable manner in time and space. These weapons were aimed at in the Conventions of The Hague and the Geneva Protocol of 1925, such as delayed-action bombs preventing all relief work, floating mines and above all bacteriological and chemical methods.

However, the major problem is raised with the discovery of atomic power. Are nuclear weapons lawful or not? Opinion is divided on this point. But those who answer in the affirmative are, as if by chance, nationals of countries which possess such arms.

The employment of atomic energy for warlike ends is not expressly prohibited in the texts, for these are prior to its discovery. This is not, however, sufficient to legalize such employment for, in the laws of war, one should make appeal to the general principles to regulate unexpected cases.

One should differentiate between strategic weapons, such as a bomb of great power, and tactical arms, as gun projectiles. If one considers the nuclear bomb, one sees that a difference of kind and not only of degree separates it from classical projectiles, for it has not only mechanical but also thermonuclear effects and in the present state of science, radio-active and perhaps even genetic effects, as yet uncontrollable. The damage it causes is certainly out of all proportion to the object of the war, since it annihilates everything living over a wide area. The suffering it causes is certainly excessive, since it inflicts atrocious burns and condemns those it has not killed outright to a slow death.

As regards tactical nuclear weapons, if one can direct these with precision and they are employed only against military targets and their effects remained limited in time and space, then one cannot see by virtue of what they should be prohibited.

However that may be, it should be stressed that if resort is never made to the atomic weapon, under one form or another,

those who assume the right to employ it and for which they will take heavy responsibility, should at least respect the principles we have mentioned, namely not to direct attacks against populated centres, but only against military objectives and take every precaution to limit damage and risks to which the population may be exposed.

This certainly coincides with what the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross, meeting in Vienna in 1965, proclaimed: "the general principles of the laws of war are applicable to nuclear and similar weapons". One can surely assess the full significance of this declaration.

c) *Methods of total warfare.*

It is not sufficient to condemn blind weapons, since classical arms can be used in such a manner as to render them as dangerous for the population as forbidden weapons. This applies to bomb "carpets" and incendiary projectiles.

It appears to us that it is more by prohibiting methods of total war threatening the civilian population than by interdicting any particular weapon that results favourable for humanity will be achieved.

Mention should now be made of a principle of application: *Warlike acts founded on treason or treachery are forbidden.*

To regulate the conduct of war presupposes a certain respect for the adversary. If he no longer has confidence in the enemy's good faith, the "rules of the game" are no longer possible. Since the age of chivalry, the laws of war have demanded that these be respected by combatants. This does not of course exclude resort to the ruses of war.

5. Principles proper to Human Rights

We have already said that, amongst the general principles, the one which characterizes Human Rights according to which "everyone shall at times be guaranteed the exercising of his fundamental rights and freedoms, as well as conditions of existence favourable to the full development of his personality".

From this principle are derived two others belonging only to that great branch of humanitarian law, apart from the common principles we have already quoted.

PRINCIPLE OF LIBERTY

Everyone has the right to have his individual freedom respected.

Like beauty, happiness or art, freedom is one of these notions which escapes all definition, but which common sense reveals fairly clearly to each one.

When the various Declarations of Rights say “human beings are born free”, it is obviously a manner of speaking. For the newborn infant in his cradle is, on the contrary, entirely dependent. Left to itself it would not take long to perish. Moreover the exercise of free will has in no way been proven. All we know of man’s life is that his behaviour is largely determined by his surroundings, heredity and psychic complexes.

We mean to say that, generally speaking, man should not be subjected to more constraint than justified by the structure of society.

It is not necessary to emphasize the importance of freedom which has led to so much heroism and made so many martyrs.

The content of this notion follows from its principles of application. It is above all a question of protecting the individual against abuse of power on the part of the State, by ensuring for him the exercising of these fundamental freedoms without which he would lose his *raison d’être*. The exigencies of public order are naturally reserved.

1. *Freedom of thought, expression, association and religion is guaranteed for each one.*

2. *Everyone has the right to speak his own language.*

3. *No one can be arbitrarily arrested, detained or exiled.*

4. *No one can be reduced to slavery.*

Slavery as defined in the 1926 and 1956 Conventions denouncing this shameful institution also covers similar practices, such as servitude, forced labour, servitude for debt, forced marriage, the transfer of children. To which one should add the white slave traffic, that is to say the forcing into prostitution, which has also been the subject of other provisions in international law.

5. Everyone has the right to circulate freely, to leave his own country and to return to it, and to seek a country of asylum.

Such is one of the provisions of the Universal Declaration which one could doubtless qualify as being exaggerated. In fact, a State would appear to be entitled to restrict, on its own territory, the free circulation of foreign nationals. Similarly, one does not see very well what would happen if all nationals of certain countries were to emigrate together to wealthier countries. The world economy would all at once become unbalanced.

One should here draw attention to the distressing problem of refugees. It is known that their status has been the subject of a special Convention concluded in 1951 under the auspices of the United Nations. It marks an important step forward in the question.

6. Everyone is entitled to the free exercising of his political rights.

In this sphere, the Universal Declaration goes a very long way, as it affirms that the will of the people is the foundation of the authority of public powers and that this will should be expressed by universal suffrage, according to a procedure ensuring the freedom to vote. In this case the Declaration is not humanitarian only, but political, since it gives preference to a particular regime.

SOCIAL WELL-BEING PRINCIPLE

Everyone has the right to favourable conditions of life.

We now find ourselves in a different field, that of economic and social rights. It is no longer a question of protecting the individual against encroachments by the State, but rather of measures which the State should take in order to improve its population's standard of living. These rights, the individual cannot enforce on the legal level. They are therefore without sanction.

When one considers that barely a half of mankind eats sufficiently, to say that each one has the right to an adequate standard of living might seem somewhat bitter irony. Therefore it should be regarded as a wish which it is hoped will not remain a pious one.

To this right there would appear to be a correspondingly important duty, that of stabilizing population figures by birth control. There is, however, much prejudice still to overcome in this sphere.

By the terms of the Universal Declaration and we take it as a principle of application—*everyone has in particular the right to work, to just and favourable conditions of work, to the social services, free education, the cultural life and to share in the benefits of scientific advancement.*

Consideration of the problem of slavery leads one to pose the following question: The hard conditions of work to which the proletariat is in many cases constrained, are these not in modern form as hateful as servitude? To take one example in history, one can think of a French law at the beginning of the XIXth Century forbidding night work in the mines for children under twelve years old!

This question was raised by a dressmaker apprentice in a letter published in "The Times" at the time of the arrival in London of Mrs. Beecher-Stowe, author of "Uncle Tom's Cabin", that powerful book which struck at the roots of slavery. One finds this sentence in the letter, cutting like the lash of a whip: "the dress ordered by the famous visitor is in the process of being made up, piece by piece, in the foulest slums of London by unfortunate white slaves, worse treated than the black slaves of the American plantations."¹

One should therefore here mention the considerable work being carried out by the International Labour Office, instituted in Geneva by the League of Nations and whose undertaking is being continued under the auspices of the United Nations. Its purpose is to regulate working conditions in the world equitably and thus free man from constraints which overwhelm him and do harm to his development.

* * *

We shall conclude by quoting the words of Pasteur: "Two laws are struggling against each other today: a law of blood and death, which by each day inventing new methods of fighting, obliges

¹ Henri COURSIER, *L'évolution du droit international humanitaire*, Geneva, 1960.

people to be always prepared for battle, and a law of peace, of work, of salvation whose only thought is to deliver men from the scourges which beset it.

The one only seeks violent conquests, whilst the other aims only at relieving mankind. The former would sacrifice hundreds of thousands of lives to one man's ambition; the latter sets one human life above all victories."

Such is this international humanitarian law, to which we have wanted to give as motto the words we have placed in the heading, those very words which Schiller had engraved in bronze on the Bell sounding: *vivos voco, mortuos plango, fulgura frango*, "I call upon the living, I cry for the dead, I break thunderbolts". One should understand this to mean: "I call upon the living for them to break the thunderbolts of war and tyranny".

Jean PICTET

Director at the International Committee
of the Red Cross
In charge of courses at the
University of Geneva

The birth and growth of a National Society

by H. Haug

The Swiss Red Cross has celebrated its centenary ; during the commemoration ceremony its Secretary-General, Mr. Haug, delivered the following paper at the 81st Ordinary Meeting of Delegates, in Zurich.¹

He outlined the development of the Swiss Red Cross, giving a detailed and precise analysis of the almost universal process of National Society growth. Tasks are gradually added to those assumed at the outset, others disappear ; the Society membership waxes and wanes. But the confidence of the public and of officialdom steadily grows and the National Society becomes an essential part of the community it is designed to serve. Its scope extends beyond the military sector to the civilian ; its ambit transcends frontiers as it extends its help to sister Societies. (Ed.).

Voluntary medical assistance

In conformity with the resolutions of 1863 and the Swiss policy of armed neutrality, our National Red Cross Society has from its very beginning considered support of the army medical service to be one of its primary tasks. First to assume this task was the *Société de secours aux militaires et leurs familles*, which was founded on July 17, 1866. Apart from training volunteer first-aid workers to tend the wounded and the sick, the Society also extended its help to the families of soldiers mobilized in war-time. It carried out its main social work during the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71

¹ See *International Review*, July 1966.

and also rendered assistance to French troops interned in Switzerland. The Swiss Central Red Cross Society, which was founded on April 25, 1882, and replaced the *Société de Secours*, also planned to "promote the care of the sick in time of peace and of war", at the same time considering it its duty to render "first-aid in the event of accident".

During the years which followed, voluntary medical assistance was reinforced by the *Société suisse des troupes sanitaires*, created in 1880, and the *Alliance suisse des Samaritains*, founded in 1888. With a view to co-ordinating operations to assist the army medical service—in which operations the *Société d'utilité publique des femmes suisses* also participated, the three organizations mentioned associated with the Swiss Central Red Cross Society towards the end of the century, but each retained its autonomy. Subsequently a joint secretariat—the *Secretariat central suisse de l'aide sanitaire volontaire*—was set up. At about that time an officer of the army medical staff was appointed head of voluntary assistance services, with responsibility to ensure close co-operation between the army medical service and the Swiss Central Red Cross Society and its affiliated organizations.

These developments were officially confirmed by the "Federal decree relating to medical assistance to the armed forces", of June 25, 1903, according to which the Swiss Government recognized the Swiss Central Red Cross Society as representative of all societies and institutions devoted to voluntary medical aid and to the formation of nursing personnel. From that time on, the Federal Council was authorized to grant annual subsidies for the training of professional nursing personnel, for the institution of first-aid courses and for the storing of equipment for transport and hospital services. The Central Society's new tasks were laid down in the statutes of June 28, 1903, and again in greater detail in the statutes of July 12, 1914, in accordance with which the Swiss Central Red Cross Society took the title *Swiss Red Cross*. The whole foundation of today's Swiss Red Cross is contained in that statute: the regional sections which are active members of the general organization; auxiliary institutions which may be affiliated to the Red Cross; the central organization (the Meeting of Delegates, Administration, Central Committee, Commissions and Central Secretariat), and

THE BIRTH AND GROWTH OF A NATIONAL SOCIETY

the function—unique of its kind—of the “head physician of the Red Cross” as the “head of medical relief” was then styled.

It was during the First World War that this new organization proved its efficiency for the first time. It was then seen that all efforts were concentrated on helping the army medical service. Throughout the entire war, the Society undertook no activity as an independent institution; it was subject, with all its personnel and material resources, to control by the military. The chief physician of the Red Cross, appointed by the Federal Council, replaced the Society's civilian controlling bodies and he directed the Society according to instructions from the Army Command. This complete “militarization” of the Red Cross, which was not provided for in the Geneva Conventions, was fortunately attenuated by the fact that the head physician carried out his functions with great competence and humanity. Nevertheless, the “Swiss Red Cross report on its war-time activities from 1914 to 1919” mentions that “extreme militarisation of voluntary medical services, and hence of the Red Cross, even if limited to war-time, would not be an advantage for the development of our work”.

Red Cross units and detachments during the First World War performed only a relatively restricted activity for the army medical service. On the other hand, Red Cross social work in favour of servicemen and their families was very extensive. Again during the influenza epidemic, 750 Red Cross nurses tended the sick; 69 of them paid with their lives for their dedication.

We shall see later on how help was given during this period to foreign war-disabled.

During the inter-war years, voluntary medical services were developed further. The number of teams and units was increased and, for the first time, motorized Red Cross transport units were formed, with female drivers. In addition, reserve medical stocks were increased and regional depots set up.

The 1914 statutes were still in force when the Second World War broke out. The Swiss Red Cross as a whole was therefore once more placed under military control, that is to say under the control of the head physician of the Red Cross. When it became apparent, in view of our country's neutrality, that the National Society would have to undertake large-scale relief actions both

within our country and abroad, the army command and the head physician themselves advocated revision of the medical service regulations and of the statutes governing the Swiss Red Cross. New regulations were introduced in 1942; the Swiss Red Cross then again became a civilian organization and its civilian activities were controlled by the association's civilian bodies. The Swiss Red Cross therefore had free rein to intervene widely for the benefit of the victims of a war which was becoming ever more closer to the extreme of total war. It became possible, not only to intensify civilian relief actions, but also to give additional help to the army medical service.

In the course of the Second World War, 13,000 female nurses, first-aid workers, drivers and girl guides—and 1,400 men liable for defence service duties, co-operated at one time or another in the military section of the Red Cross, particularly in military medical establishments. In addition, the head physician undertook to organize a blood transfusion service for the army. The Swiss Red Cross considerably increased its reserves of equipment and supplied linen and other articles of clothing to conscripted soldiers.

During the two decades following the end of the Second World War, the voluntary medical services were systematically developed. One important step in this direction was the "Federal Decree on the Swiss Red Cross" of June 13, 1951. This confirmed the obligations of the Swiss Red Cross towards the army medical service and voluntary medical assistance was considered as one of the Society's main tasks. In 1950, the Federal Council promulgated a decree concerning voluntary medical assistance and the organization of Red Cross units. This was the first complete set of regulations concerning Red Cross Services. The Swiss Red Cross Statutes of 1949 and 1963 lay down, once more, the functions of the head physician and his responsibilities in peace-time and in case of active service. These responsibilities are limited to the tasks which the Swiss Red Cross must assume with a view to assisting the army medical service.

"The Red Cross Service Ordinance" of May 18, 1962, which is still valid today, stipulates that the Swiss Red Cross shall organize units and ensure that they are available to the army for the care and transport of wounded and sick and for the operation of a blood

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transfusion service. Whilst the Red Cross army units consist of men liable for defence duties, the Red Cross detachments consist of women doctors, nurses, assistant nurses, first-aiders, girl guides, etc. By means of the Red Cross detachments, which are independent of the women's voluntary service, the National Society makes available to the army medical service all female nursing personnel enrolled on a voluntary basis; the Federal constitution makes no provision for compulsory service by women.

It should be mentioned that according to the ordinance concerning the Red Cross, the National Society, which must make detachments of properly trained persons available, is authorized to give directives on professional training in nursing schools which it recognizes and it must see to it that these directives are followed.

These provisions, which are to be found for the first time in a Federal Council decree of 1946 and which were repeated in the Federal Council's 1950 decree on voluntary medical services, bring us to the second very important task actively assumed by the Swiss Red Cross for a number of years.

Development of nursing care

Two imperious reasons have induced the Swiss Red Cross to give special attention to the training of professional nursing personnel, namely the obligation to make trained professional nurses available to the army medical service, on the one hand, and the absence of any Federal legislation on professional training of nursing personnel on the other. There have been several attempts at introducing such legislation but they did not achieve any result as it is generally held that the problem of nursing care is one which should be left to the cantonal authorities. The Swiss Red Cross intervened to make good this deficiency, for it was increasingly apparent that the introduction of an improved national regulation on the training of nursing personnel was a growing need. In addition, cantons could not take this task in hand unaided. The Society therefore acted in its capacity as a politically and religiously neutral institution capable of carrying out its task completely impartially and with an open mind.

Its first important step in the field of nursing was the setting up in 1899 of a nursing school at the "Lindenhof" private hospital

in Berne; this was the first non-sectarian Swiss institution for the training of nurses without religious affiliations. Both the school and the hospital have continued to expand from that time.

After the entry into force of the Federal Decree of 1903 on voluntary medical assistance and its relevant administrative ruling, the National Society was entrusted with sharing out the Federal subsidy among all the associations and institutions concerned with nursing personnel training. As this subsidy is only granted to institutions which undertake to make two-thirds of their personnel available for voluntary medical assistance and which guarantee to provide adequate practical and theoretical training, the Red Cross was obliged to exercise control over these training centres and to assess the services they render. The Swiss Red Cross henceforth had to approve nursing schools. This recognition is not granted merely on the basis of the schools' contribution to voluntary medical services and the granting of the Federal subsidy; it also implies an acceptable standard in the life of the community.

In 1923, the Society agreed to sponsor the Protestant school of nursing, "La Source"; this had been founded in 1859 and had been open to nurses of every religion. It was renamed "Ecole romande de gardes-malades de la Croix-Rouge suisse".

It was in 1924 that the first directives were given on the training of professional nurses. In the course of time, the number of recognized schools continued to grow: there were twelve at the beginning of the Second World War. However, it was during the war years that giant strides were taken in nursing activities. In 1944, the Swiss Red Cross set up the Nursing Commission to which was accredited a new body, the Nurses Central Secretariat. The Swiss nursing association, the result of the amalgamation of the two professional associations, became affiliated to the National Society as an auxiliary institution. In 1950, the Red Cross school of advanced nursing was created and organized regular courses in Zurich and Lausanne.

Developments were both of a legal and a practical nature. The Federal Council Decrees of 1946, 1950 and 1962 concerning voluntary medical assistance authorized the Red Cross to issue directives concerning professional training in the schools it had recognized, to supervise the training of nursing candidates and to

hold a watching brief during examinations for diplomas. However, the National Society's activity in the field of nursing went far beyond Red Cross service, a fact legally recognized for the first time in the Federal Decree concerning the Swiss Red Cross of 1951. This laid down that apart from voluntary medical assistance (Red Cross service) one of the main tasks was "the development of professional nursing and supervision of training in schools recognized by the Swiss Red Cross".

Today there are 35 general nursing schools turning out pupils in accordance with Red Cross directives and thus entitled to "recognition". Some 11,000 female and male nurses from these schools are at present employed for the care of the sick. In accordance with a Federal decree of September 24, 1962, these schools receive an annual subsidy; the amount depends on the number of diplomas awarded and is separate from the subsidy granted for making personnel available to the Red Cross.

The Swiss Conference of heads of medical services also appreciates the work done in the field of nursing. This it proved in 1960 when it decided to entrust to the Red Cross the framing of regulations and the supervision of training in the schools for assistant nurses for medico-social institutions (elderly persons and the chronically sick), medical laboratory assistants and maternity and child welfare nurses. The National Society will probably be entrusted with the control of training of male and female nurses in psychiatric care and it has good reason to hope that, as it proposed, the cantons grant it annually, from 1967 onwards, an important over-all contribution to enable it not only to pursue but also to enlarge its activity to promote nursing in certain sectors.

Blood transfusion service

This important service originated from the Society's co-operation with the army medical service. During the Second World War, when blood transfusion began to play a very important rôle in the medical services of the belligerents, the Swiss Red Cross participated in the founding of such a service for military needs. The idea later developed to organize a national blood transfusion service for the benefit of the army and the civilian population. This new institution, as in the past, was based on the principle of the free

donation of blood. In terms of the Red Cross ideal, this is an act of solidarity by a person in good health for the benefit of his sick and generally anonymous neighbour. However, the Red Cross blood transfusion service was not limited to supplying reserves of fresh blood and to recruiting donors for hospitals and the medical service. It has also to apply all the new scientific and technical innovations in hematology and in the preparation and preservation of blood products. The fact that donors give their blood freely implies the obligation to supply the blood and its derivatives on a non-profit-making basis.

Since it was started in the years 1948-1949, the blood transfusion service has become a wide scale medico-social undertaking. It includes the regional organization (which today consists of no less than 55 centres) and the central laboratory in Berne. The Red Cross has undertaken the supply of the army medical service with blood products which can be preserved such as dried plasma and blood substitutes; it has also undertaken to ensure the continual renewal of the reserve stocks for war. The preparation of the products required by the army is for the most part carried on in underground establishments belonging to the government but operated by the Red Cross, which also obtains the necessary blood. In conformity with a Federal Council decree of November 13, 1953, the central laboratory has also the obligation to determine blood groups and rhesus factors of all Swiss conscripts.

Another feature of our blood transfusion service is that it is closely attached to the Red Cross organization. The third important task for our institution under the Federal decree of 1951 is to maintain a blood transfusion service for military and civilian needs. The National Society is responsible for operating this blood transfusion service. It was, in fact, decided not to set up an autonomous organization having its own legal personality. Similarly, the regional transfusion centres are connected to the Swiss Red Cross; they in fact depend on the local sections which, together with the "Samaritan" sections, participate in the organization of mobile teams for the collection of blood donations.

The close ties between the blood transfusion service and the Red Cross, which should in particular guarantee the maintenance of the humanitarian ideal within an organization which grows

unceasingly, has not by any means hindered the development of the other specific activity of our blood transfusion service, that is to say, scientific research. The Red Cross has shown itself perspicacious and generous in its encouragement of this activity. The research work carried on today by the central laboratory, in co-operation with the University of Berne and several clinics in that town, and with financial assistance from the Swiss National Fund for scientific and industrial research in the private sector, is particularly productive. There is no doubt that these contacts with the country's scientific circles and with the work carried on by the central laboratory in this field make the greatest contribution to the increasing renown of the blood transfusion service in specialized circles in Switzerland and abroad.

“ Samaritan ” organization and rescue work

The Swiss Red Cross has always co-operated with the “ Samaritan ” sections of the “ Alliance Suisse des Samaritains ”, created in 1888 to promote voluntary medical assistance and the dissemination, in time of peace, of instruction in first aid and home nursing. The first agreement between the two associations was signed in 1893. It is in the 1914 Red Cross Statutes that the term “ auxiliary institution ” can be found for the first time; it is a term which covers associations whose activities are similar to those of the Red Cross and which are affiliated to it whilst retaining their autonomy. This is the case for the “ Alliance Suisse des Samaritains ” on whose co-operation the Red Cross can always count. In addition, the Red Cross has supported and continues to support the wide activity of the “ Alliance ” which, like the other auxiliary institutions, is entitled to display the red cross emblem.

In this connection we would mention the existence of the typically Swiss “ auxiliary institutions ” which in general have stood the test of experience and this type of organization continues to develop in keeping with the necessities of the times. Indeed, it enables independent associations to extend their action to particular fields in agreement with the National Red Cross and taking their inspiration from the same principles. At the present time, there are six auxiliary institutions (Swiss Society of Medical Troops, “ Alliance Suisse des Samaritains ”, Swiss Nursing Association, Association

of Swiss Establishments for the Sick, Swiss Rescue Society and Swiss Air Rescue Corps) whose existence especially avoids a cumbersome centralization of tasks and activities in a single organization of unmanageable proportions.

Civil Defence

Proceeding from voluntary medical assistance, nursing, blood transfusion and first-aid, is a further important task for the Red Cross, namely participation in measures taken by the authorities to ensure protection and assistance to the civilian population in the event of war. This task was born from the increasing danger with which modern warfare threatens civilian populations and it is within the scope of the first mission of the Red Cross, namely assistance to the victims of war. These measures are based on international public law since the introduction of the Geneva Conventions relative to the protection of civilian persons in time of war.

Before this new task could be included in the statutes and put into effect, it was necessary for the protection of the civil population in time of war to be recognized in federal law as a national task forming part and parcel of the country's defence. In 1953, the assembly of Swiss Red Cross delegates voted a resolution according to which they recommended a federal law on civilian protection and declared that the Red Cross was prepared to co-operate in that protection. In the course of the years which followed, the Red Cross participated in the legal and public relations aspect of civil defence preparation. In 1959, the electors and the cantonal authorities accepted an article in the constitution and a federal law on civil defence entered into force in 1963. This was followed, a year later, by a federal law on constitutional work for civil defence.

In 1963, the Swiss Red Cross totally revised its statutes in order to include therein protection and assistance to civilian war victims as one of its tasks. According to the definition adopted by the Federal Council, the Swiss Red Cross should, in time of peace, "co-operate in informing the population on the dangers in which they may be involved and the means of protection; training of Red Cross personnel for work with the medical service of the Civil Defence Organization and with civilian hospitals; the supply of

equipment ". In the event of the army being on active service, the Red Cross ensures the transport of wounded and sick, nursing care, blood transfusion; these are measures designed to supplement the army medical service in co-operation with the Civil Defence Organization and the civilian hospitals. In other words, the mission of the Red Cross in the medical field exceeds its work as an auxiliary to the army medical service to include the civilian population; its medical service must be fully organized to cope with the demands of modern warfare.

This important task does not merely entail providing the army medical service, Civil Defence and civilian hospitals with already existing reserves of personnel and equipment: it implies an appreciable increase in available means, that is to say, greater strength in personnel, equipment and also blood products. Only efforts on a greater scale will make it possible to supply the army and Civil Defence with the assistance they are entitled to expect from the Red Cross. So far, the Red Cross has only devoted a minor part of its resources to protection for the civilian population in time of war. Stress must still be laid on training auxiliary nursing personnel and further developing the blood transfusion service. Training of the numerous first-aiders and "Samaritans" is a task incumbent on the "Alliance Suisse des Samaritains". This programme will require ten to twenty years for completion.

Junior Red Cross, courses, social work, assistance in disaster

The Junior Red Cross, which was introduced in our country following on a resolution of the meeting of delegates in 1949, first met with a number of difficulties for several reasons; schooling is not uniform throughout the country, teachers are required to give their time in other fields and there were already many youth groups and movements. However, in the course of the last few years, the Junior Red Cross has begun to take solid footing. Several projects are likely to meet with enthusiasm from youth; such as the "Casa Henry Dunant" at Varazze and the "coach for the disabled", the training of first-aiders and life savers. Support must be given to the efforts of the Junior Red Cross which has the function of recruiting adolescents to the Red Cross cause and thereby ensuring our Society's future. At the same time it awakens those humane

qualities which will be ever more necessary in our world which is governed by technology.

As for courses in home nursing, maternity and child welfare, and training of Red Cross nursing auxiliaries, these have developed in encouraging fashion. These courses meet a genuine need and through them the Red Cross reaches all sections of the population.

With regard to social activities, the assistance given by voluntary Red Cross workers and professional occupational therapists to the aged and the disabled is extremely useful. Mention should also be made of the assistance given to indigent Swiss families (e.g. provision of free beds) and also of relief work in disasters, which also includes minor interventions, after fire, for example, as well as large-scale actions following avalanches or flooding.

International mutual assistance

This task may be considered in part as a consequence of the country's policy of neutrality and solidarity.

The first relief work abroad by the Swiss Red Cross was during the Boer War; this was followed by work during the war in the Balkans and then during the catastrophe at Messina. But it was not until the First World War and the years which followed that our Society carried out any large-scale activity outside our own frontiers on behalf of the victims of war. At the Federal Council's request, it organized rail transport 300 times, either for the exchange of wounded or sick prisoners between belligerents, or to bring to our country wounded prisoners who had to be interned here. More than 80,000 persons from various countries benefited from these transport arrangements. After the war, our Society provided relief to needy civilian populations, particularly to the inhabitants of famine-stricken Vienna.

Towards 1930, in response to an appeal from the International Committee of the Red Cross, the Swiss National Society organized assistance programmes for the benefit of the victims of the Italo-Abyssinian War and of the Spanish Civil War. A fleet of coaches evacuated 2,500 women, children and elderly people from Madrid.

During the Second World War, the Swiss National Society's action was on an even greater scale. In Switzerland itself it helped the authorities responsible for looking after interned troops and

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civilian refugees, and it organized exchanges and repatriations through Switzerland. It also played an active part in arranging for tuberculous cases to go to hospital and for the accommodation of adolescents and disabled soldiers. The "Secours aux enfants" which attended to the placing of child victims of the war in Swiss homes grew rapidly. By the end of 1948, it had arranged accommodation for more than 150,000 children.

Assistance outside Switzerland extended to 21 countries; beneficiaries were both military and civilian. In a number of countries the "Secours aux enfants" set up delegations which, apart from selecting the children to be sent to Switzerland, distributed foodstuffs and clothing, medical assistance, and undertook the maintenance of homes.

Since the end of the war, the Swiss Red Cross has unceasingly provided help for people in other countries. Actions in favour of war victims are generally conducted in co-operation with the ICRC. In addition there are the relief campaigns undertaken by the League of Red Cross Societies for the benefit of refugees and the victims of natural disasters. It is thanks to the constant support given by the population and the authorities that the National Society is able to carry out these activities.

Hans HAUG

Doctor of Laws, P.D.

Secretary-General of the Swiss Red Cross

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES

Vietnam

Relief Mission.—Thanks to generous donations, mainly from National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross has so far been able to continue to carry out its relief mission, the benefits of which it endeavours to bring to the greatest possible number of victims of the war in Vietnam. The latest donation it has received consists of £5,000 sent by the British Red Cross which entrusts the ICRC to use this amount for equal benefit to victims in North Vietnam, South Vietnam and the territory occupied by the NLF.

A number of donors have asked the ICRC to divide their donations into three equal parts to be used for relief in Vietnam. Others required their remittances to be used for the benefit of victims in one or two of the three sectors into which Vietnam is split by the war. The ICRC complied with the wishes it received in this connection.

Since August 1965 it has received contributions from 18 National Societies in addition to those donated by the Swiss and Danish Governments, the Swiss radio network and two non-governmental organizations. The total value thereof—Swiss francs 766,300—was increased by the sum of Swiss francs 100,000 raised by this year's annual collection among the Swiss population.

These funds are used in three ways, namely:

- 1) provision of medical and surgical supplies to the Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, Hanoi;
- 2) despatch of medical supplies for the "National Liberation Front of South Vietnam";

- 3) relief distributions, by the Red Cross of the Republic of Vietnam, with assistance from the Saigon delegates of the ICRC, to the wounded and the sick, to war disabled, and to displaced persons.

Despatch to Hanoi and to the NLF.—Several National Societies have sent direct consignments to Hanoi. The International Committee also forwards donations entrusted to it by National Societies and various non-Red Cross organizations. The consignments sent by the Committee for the benefit of war victims in North Vietnam are made up in accordance with indications received from Hanoi. Extensive transport facilities have been granted in the USSR and in China thanks to the intervention of the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the Soviet Union and the intervention of the Red Cross of China. The Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam has acknowledged receipt of all consignments.

On the other hand, no acknowledgments have been received from the NLF, to which similar consignments have been and will continue to be sent in accordance with donors' wishes.

Aid to refugees in South Vietnam.—The National Red Cross Society of the Republic of Vietnam has carried out numerous relief distributions for the benefit of civilian victims of the war, mainly refugees from the fighting and bombing. It has organized groups of young first-aiders who are proving to be extremely keen, working even in the least accessible regions. These missions, attended by the ICRC delegates are, of course, not without risk; but they also demonstrate that the red cross emblem is held in high esteem.

During the Executive Committee of the League in Geneva from October 4-8, the South Vietnam Red Cross representatives requested National Societies present to increase their assistance to the victims of the war. The League, which had been requested by the South Vietnam Red Cross to launch an international appeal in favour of the wounded and the sick and of refugees, contacted the International Committee of the Red Cross.

Reception Centre for Civilian War Disabled.—This National Red Cross activity has developed in a gratifying manner, thanks to the contributions it has received from various quarters, particularly from the Swiss Red Cross, which participated to a considerable

extent in this work by delegating at its own expense a nurse, Miss Spitzer, who has been working for many months with the National Society in the running of this reception centre. Her tour being terminated, she will return to Switzerland and her replacement, Mr. Ulrich Schüle, nurse, is already in Saigon.

From December 16, 1965, to September 16, 1966, the Civilian Disabled Reception Centre admitted 205 persons, of whom 118 were men (15 % being under 30 years of age), 50 were women and 37 were children under 15. Total patient-days amounted to 5634.

The Vietnam Red Cross has begun construction of an additional hutment to increase the capacity of the Centre from 35 to 135 beds. Plans are being made to extend assistance to the war disabled in the provinces.

Medical teams.—The medical team of the Red Lion and Sun Society of Iran, the first such National Society team to operate in South Vietnam, returned to Teheran on October 1, after caring for the civilian population of Kien-Hoa in the Mekong delta.

The Swiss Red Cross medical team is still in action in Kontum in the high central plateau, and the team of the German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, which recently arrived in Saigon, has become operational in the capital, where it has set up a dispensary on a plot of land belonging to the Vietnam Red Cross. Patients are also treated aboard the hospital ship " Helgoland " which is anchored in the Saigon river near the city centre.

Prisoners.—The Red Cross of the Republic of Vietnam has also participated in the visits carried out by ICRC delegates to Vietnam prisoners held by the Government. Members of its Central Committee accompany the International Committee representatives, for whom they act as interpreters. Vietnamese first-aiders assist in relief distributions. Delegates of the Vietnam Red Cross and of the ICRC have been authorized to go again to the island of Con-Son (Poulo-Condore) where they were able to visit prisoners of war and interview a number of them.

In addition, the ICRC Central Tracing Agency has received further lists of prisoners' names, thus bringing the total of notified prisoners of war held by the Government of the Republic of Vietnam

to 516. The number of North Vietnamese prisoners held by the American forces, and of which the list has been communicated to Geneva and transmitted to Hanoi, is 19.

Laos

Doctor Jürg Baer, ICRC doctor delegate, has returned to Laos where, prior to the spring of 1965, he had made a number of prolonged stays to assist refugees. His present mission is to organize, in co-operation with the Laotian Red Cross, a relief programme for the benefit of persons who have been forced by recent events to flee from the northern and eastern parts of the kingdom to seek refuge in the Mekong valley. The ICRC delegate also attended relief distributions to the victims of the floods which occurred towards the end of summer. The relief supplies were provided by several National Red Cross Societies through the intermediary of the League.

Cambodia

After receiving from Mr. André Durand, delegate general of the International Committee of the Red Cross for Asia, the sum of Riels 282,719 (28,300 Swiss francs) for relief to the victims of border incidents, H. R. H. Princess Norodom Rasmi Sobhama, President of the Cambodian Red Cross, wrote to the ICRC President in Geneva, expressing "our satisfaction for the relief in favour of our people who are victims, and our heartfelt thanks for the humanitarian gesture which you have so kindly made".

Indonesia

Whilst in Indonesia, to study various humanitarian problems arising in the archipelago, in conjunction with the National Red Cross Society, Mr. André Durand, delegate general of the International Committee of the Red Cross for Asia, went to the island of Lombok, east of Bali, where a serious famine was reported. He was accompanied by the Indonesian Red Cross Secretary-General Mr. Tirtopramono.

According to observations made by these two Red Cross representatives, some 10,000 persons have died as a result of the

famine, caused by a drought which has continued for almost two years. In addition, some 80,000 are in various stages of starvation. In one village of 2,000 inhabitants the death roll is estimated at 600. The situation is aggravated by epidemics, particularly smallpox: this year alone no less than 5,500 cases have been reported, 500 of them fatal.

The local authorities and the central government are endeavouring to remedy the situation by importing emergency food supplies to the island. These are distributed among the whole population. The authorities have just carried out a survey of requirements which will provide a basis for planning a large-scale assistance programme. The Indonesian Red Cross is closely associated in this work.

Federation of Malaysia

The 538 Indonesian nationals detained in the Federation of Malaysia during the conflict between the two countries have just been repatriated. They boarded ship at Port Swettenham, in the presence of Mr. André Durand, International Committee delegate general for Asia.

The ICRC intervened on behalf of these prisoners from the very beginning of their captivity. Mr. Durand visited most of them in places of detention in the peninsula and in North Borneo. The ICRC also made arrangements for detainees to correspond with their families and to receive parcels from the Indonesian Red Cross.

Although the Government in Kuala Lumpur did not admit the applicability of the Geneva Conventions in its conflict with Indonesia, it facilitated ICRC activity in favour of victims, particularly the now repatriated Indonesian detainees.

*IN GENEVA***Guests of the International Committee**

On the occasion of the Executive Committee meeting of the League of Red Cross Societies, the representatives of these Societies were the guests of the International Committee of the Red Cross, which had arranged an information session on its recent activities. The President, Mr. Samuel A. Gonard, first of all described the efforts which the ICRC had made and was still making in Vietnam to obtain fuller application of the Geneva Conventions and also to establish contact with all parties to the conflict with a possible view to easing tension and leading to measures favourable to a halt or at least an abatement of hostilities.

Mr. Jacques Moreillon, who has just returned from South Vietnam where he was a member of the ICRC's delegation, then gave an account of its work on behalf of prisoners, the disabled and refugees. The representative of the Red Cross of the Republic of Vietnam expressed his warm thanks for the ICRC's action, but pointed out that needs are still great and that increased aid from the Red Cross world for his country is of prime necessity. The delegates of several National Societies took part in a discussion on the rôle of the Red Cross in the Vietnam conflict and especially on the possibilities it would have of working more actively for the re-establishment of peace.

The representatives of the Red Cross of India and Pakistan also expressed their appreciation of the activity deployed by the ICRC in connection with the conflict which broke out in 1965 between the two countries.

Finally, Mr. Jean Pictet, Director for General Affairs, gave a report on how the ICRC had followed up certain resolutions adopted at the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross (Vienna, 1965), in particular as regards the Geneva Conventions and the protection of the population against the dangers of modern warfare.

ICRC Financial Situation

The Expenditure and Receipts Account for 1965 shows a deficit of Sw.fr. 843,643.30 for a total expenditure of Sw.fr. 5,138,598.75, whereas the deficit forecast for the same period amounted to Sw.fr. 1,061,500.—. The improvement on the estimates reflects the International Committee's unrelenting efforts to ensure constant economy in administration. None the less, the scope of the tasks incumbent upon it and their continual recurrence as a result of fresh conflicts each year reveal the Committee's inadequate financial basis which consistently threatens the institution's very existence.

Such a situation was recognized by the representatives of the governments and National Societies at the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross in Vienna in October 1965, which adopted a Resolution (No. XIII) in this respect.¹ A pressing appeal was addressed to all States parties to the Geneva Conventions urging them to include in their budgets a voluntary annual contribution to the International Committee of the Red Cross.

The International Committee trusts that this appeal, the gravity of which will not go unnoticed by the Powers signatories to the Geneva Conventions, will lead to a sufficient increase of government contributions to enable it at least to balance its budget.²

¹ See *International Review*, November 1965.

² The accounts as at December 31, 1965, summarized in the following tables, have been audited and approved by the Société fiduciaire romande Ofor SA, an auditing company recognized by the Swiss Federal Council and the Federal Banking Commission.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

BALANCE SHEET AS AT

<i>ASSETS</i>	Sw. Fr.	Sw. Fr.
1. CURRENT ASSETS AND MARKETABLE SECURITIES :		
1.1 Cash on hand and in cheque accounts. . . .	979,801	
1.2 Public securities	8,753,001	
1.3 Other deposits	3,019,787	12,752,589
2. ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE :		
2.1 From Governments.	189,400	
2.2 From National Societies and League of Red Cross Societies	70,658	
2.3 From Swiss Revenue Dept. (refundable tax) .	80,600	
2.4 From others	211,727	552,385
3. ADVANCES TO ICRC DELEGATIONS :		134,642
4. ACCRUALS AND PREPAID EXPENSES :		
4.1 Accrued interest	135,912	
4.2 Accrued receivables and prepaid expenses . .	32,645	168,557
5. CLOSING STOCKS :		
5.1 Relief supplies and equipment	40,690	
5.2 Office furniture and equipment, vehicles . . .	63,012	103,702
6. OTHER ASSETS, for the record		1
7. FUNDS HELD IN TRUST.		405,044
8. DEFICIT ON SPECIAL RELIEF ACTIONS, still out- standing :		
8.1 Action in Nepal	1,385,442	
8.2 Action in Yemen.	2,399,634	3,785,076
<i>Total assets</i>		17,901,996
9. SURETY :		
Foundation for the organization of ICRC trans- ports.		400,000

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

Table I

DECEMBER 31, 1965

<i>LIABILITIES</i>		Sw. Fr.	Sw. Fr.
1. RELIEF ACTIONS :			
1.1 Unappropriated funds	1,030,488		
1.2 Appropriated funds.	397,277		
1.3 Relief actions under way	581,080		2,008,845
1.4 Advances for the financing of certain relief actions :			
1. Action in Nepal.	1,298,220		
2. Action in Yemen	2,900,000		4,198,220
TOTAL FUNDS MADE AVAILABLE FOR RELIEF ACTIONS			6,207,065
2. ACCOUNTS PAYABLE :			
2.1 To Red Cross Societies and other Institutions	91,373		
2.2 To others	150,432		
2.3 For unexpired ICRC certificates of deposit	48,000		289,805
3. ACCRUED LIABILITIES :			
3.1 Expenses payable in 1966	162,505		
3.2 Other accrued liabilities.	43,208		205,713
4. FUNDS HELD IN TRUST			405,044
5. PROVISIONS :			
5.1 For ICRC Pension insurance annuities . .	86,089		
5.2 For the 21st International Conference of the Red Cross	60,000		
5.3 For general repairs to ICRC headquarters building.	477,450		
5.4 For other commitments.	37,800		661,339
6. RESERVES FOR CONTINGENCIES :			
6.1 Appropriated for the case of a major international intervention	5,000,000		
6.2 Unappropriated, for general contingencies .	133,030		5,133,030
7. GUARANTEE FUND			5,000,000
TOTAL LIABILITIES			17,901,996
8. SURETY :			
Foundation for the organization of ICRC transports			400,000

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

STATEMENT OF INCOME AND

EXPENDITURE	Sw. Fr. 1965	Sw. Fr. 1966 (Budget)
I. ACTIVITIES ABROAD :		
<i>(Executive Division : delegations and missions, international relief operations, Central Tracing Agency)</i>		
1. Staff at ICRC headquarters in Geneva	671,328.87	775,212.—
2. Permanent delegations in the field.	472,107.20	360,000.—
3. Missions from Geneva	146,040.—	180,000.—
4. Central Tracing Agency	616,025.20	459,743.—
5. Equipment and organisation	76,011.65	74,200.—
	1,981,512.92	1,849,155.—
II. HUMANITARIAN LAW AND INFORMATION :		
<i>(Division of General Affairs : Geneva Conventions and humanitarian law, Information, Publications, Translations, Archives)</i>		
1. Staff at ICRC headquarters in Geneva	1,269,738.75	1,221,711.—
2. Commissions of experts, Red Cross Conferences . .	39,276.76	103,000.—
3. Publications and documentation, information. . .	62,573.33	103,200.—
4. International Review of the Red Cross.	75,566.37	73,500.—
	1,447,155.21	1,501,411.—
III. ADMINISTRATION :		
<i>(General administrative services : Finance and Accounting, Personnel and Travel, Technical Services, Premises)</i>		
1. Staff at ICRC headquarters in Geneva	1,213,067.95	1,191,477.—
2. Technical equipment	63,180.20	50,500.—
3. Postal expenses, stationery and office supplies . .	206,514.51	163,200.—
4. ICRC headquarters premises (insurance, heating, water, electricity, repairs, upkeep and maintenance).	227,167.94	173,000.—
	1,709,930.60	1,578,177.—
<i>Total expenditure</i>	5,138,598.73	4,928,743.—

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

Table II

EXPENDITURE FOR 1965

	Sw. Fr. 1965	Sw. Fr. 1966 (Budget)
<i>INCOME</i>		
I. CONTRIBUTIONS AND GIFTS TOWARDS THE FINANCING OF GENERAL OVERHEADS :		
1. Government contributions	2,229,895.74	2,450,600.—
2. National Red Cross Society contributions	534,858.30	532,400.—
3. Other donations.	412,308.08	343,200.—
	3,177,062.12	3,326,200.—
II. INTEREST EARNED ON INVESTMENTS :		
1. Interest earned on public securities and bank deposits	315,928.01	249,000.—
2. Income from the Foundation in favour of the ICRC	30,574.10	30,000.—
	346,502.11	279,000.—
III. PARTICIPATION FROM THE GENERAL ACCOUNT FOR RELIEF ACTIONS	771,391.20	692,000.—
<i>Total income</i>	4,294,955.43	4,297,200.—
DEFICIT FOR 1965		
(Written off by withdrawal from Reserve for General Contingencies).	843,643.30	631,543.—
	5,138,598.73	4,928,743.—

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

Table III

**Contributions to the ICRC in 1965 from Governments and
National Red Cross Societies and allocated to the Financing
of Expenditure in 1965**

Countries	Governments	Red Cross Societies
	Sw. Fr.	Sw. Fr.
Afghanistan	3,000.—	
Albania		700.—
Australia	72,203.40	32,305.50
Austria	20,040.—	5,000.—
Belgium	10,000.—	12,500.—
Brazil	17,405.05	
Bulgaria	1,000.—	4,500.—
Burma	6,400.—	2,250.—
Cambodia		2,000.—
Canada	59,700.—	40,150.—
Ceylon	3,020.—	
Chile	25,900.—	4,300.—
China		10,000.—
Colombia	17,314.—	3,562.95
Costa Rica		480.—
Czechoslovakia		3,000.—
Denmark	18,782.87	
Dominican Republic		2,165.—
Ecuador	891.50	1,000.—
El Salvador	3,058.55	385.55
Ethiopia		2,250.—
Finland	8,000.—	3,000.—
France	61,600.—	30,000.—
German Democratic Republic		6,000.—
German Federal Republic	161,298.90	30,000.—
Ghana		2,000.—
Greece	18,000.—	5,500.—
Guatemala		1,629.30
Hungary	1,000.—	2,500.—
Iceland		1,000.—
India	67,425.—	2,721.—
Indonesia	45,000.—	
Iran	20,000.—	20,000.—
Iraq	8,000.—	3,500.—
Ireland	7,500.—	3,500.—
Israel	7,500.—	
Italy	60,000.—	
Japan	21,860.—	26,200.—*
Jordan	3,630.60	
Korea, Democratic Republic of		2,000.—

* The Japanese Red Cross also remitted the ICRC in 1965 an additional amount of Sw. Fr. 3,800.—. This was incorporated into the Reserve for General Risks.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

Countries	Governments	Red Cross Societies
	Sw. Fr.	Sw. Fr.
Korea, Republic of	14,560.—	3,500.—
Laos		2,000.—
Lebanon.	4,222.—	2,500.—
Liechtenstein	4,000.—	
Luxemburg	2,000.—	3,000.—
Madagascar	1,590.60	
Malaysia	4,800.—	
Mexico	17,280.—	
Monaco	3,500.—	2,000.—
Mongolia	1,086.—	
Morocco	3,000.—	
Netherlands	15,000.—	25,000.—
New Zealand.	36,240.—	7,500.—
Nicaragua	215.60	
Nigeria	4,848.—	2,000.—
Norway	16,000.—	
Pakistan		2,500.—
Peru		3,550.—
Philippines.	15,000.—	5,000.—
Poland	15,000.—	6,000.—
Portugal.	13,000.—	
Rumania		5,000.—
San Marino	2,000.—	2,000.—
Senegal	2,114.40	
Sierra Leone	2,000.—	
South Africa, Republic of	36,120.—	15,000.—
Spain	8,042.26	
Sweden	41,666.67	
Switzerland	1,000,000.—	
Syria		2,000.—
Tanzania	6,020.—	
Thailand	18,000.—	3,000.—
Togo	1,700.—	2,156.25
Tunisia	1,800.—	1,500.—
Turkey	4,334.28	11,000.—
United Arab Republic.	39,876.06	
United Kingdom	121,500.—	30,243.75
United States		108,250.—
Upper Volta		1,759.—
USSR.		16,300.—
Venezuela	19,400.—	
Viet Nam, Democratic Republic		2,000.—
Viet Nam, Republic of.		2,000.—
Yugoslavia	4,450.—	2,000.—
Totals	2,229,895.74	534,858.30

Table IV

**INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS
SPECIAL FUND FOR RELIEF ACTIONS**

<i>Summary of movements in 1965</i>		Sw. Fr.	Sw. Fr.
1.	BALANCE CARRIED FORWARD FROM DECEMBER 31, 1964		2,167,772
2.	RECEIPTS IN 1965 :		
2.1	Net product of 1965 public collection in Switzerland	848,590	
2.2	Other donations for specific actions	919,734	1,768,324
			3,936,096
3.	EXPENDITURE IN 1965 :		
3.1	Purchases of relief material and supplies	1,064,155	
3.2	Forwarding and distribution costs	563,811	
3.3	Contribution to the expenses of the Central Tracing Agency	299,284	(1,927,250)
4.	BALANCE AS AT DECEMBER 31, 1965		2,008,846

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

Table V

SPECIAL FUNDS

1. FOUNDATION FOR THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE RED CROSS

BALANCE SHEET AS AT DECEMBER 31, 1965

ASSETS		CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Public securities, at par :		Inalienable capital	1,028,252.52
— Swiss Funds . . 1,000,000.— (market value Fr. 982,550.—)		Inalienable reserve fund :	
		b/fwd from 1964	140,717.65
— Foreign Funds . . 154,710.— (market value Fr. 152,310.—)		Statutory allocation of 15% from net revenue in 1965	5,473.— 146,190.65
	1,154,710.—	Total value of funds	1,174,443.17
Deposit with Swiss National Bank, Geneva	42,075.32	International Committee of the Red Cross :	
Administration fédérale des contributions, Berne (tax paid in advance to be refunded) . .	8,492.45	Funds in current account . . .	30,834.60
	<u>1,205,277.77</u>		<u>1,205,277.77</u>

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR 1965

EXPENDITURE		RECEIPTS	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Deposit fees for safe custody of securities, auditors' fees and various expenses	439.50	Income from securities in 1965 . .	36,486.60
Statutory allocation to inalien- able reserve fund : 15 % of the net revenue in 1965 (Art. 8 of the Statutes)	5,473.—		
Allocation to the ICRC of balance of net revenue for 1965 (Art. 7 of the Statutes)	30,574.10		
	<u>36,486.60</u>		<u>36,486.60</u>

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

2. AUGUSTA FUND

BALANCE SHEET AS AT DECEMBER 31, 1965

ASSETS		CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Swiss Government securities (market value Fr. 117,600.—) at par	120,000.—	Inalienable capital	100,000.—
Deposit at the Swiss National Bank, Geneva	6,356.95	Reserve for fluctuation in value	18,318.45
Administration fédérale des contributions, Berne (tax paid in advance to be refunded) .	915.30	Funds available on December 31, 1965	6,833.80
	<u>127,272.25</u>		<u>125,152.25</u>
		Creditors (Allocations to be withdrawn)	2,000.—
		International Committee of the Red Cross : Funds in current account	120.—
			<u>127,272.25</u>

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR 1965

EXPENDITURE		RECEIPTS	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Fees for auditors, safekeeping of securities and miscellaneous expenses	163.50	B/fwd from December 31, 1965	3,709.—
Excess of receipts over expendi- ture : balance available on December 31, 1965	6,833.80	Income from securities in 1965 .	3,288.30
	<u>6,997.30</u>		<u>6,997.30</u>

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

3. EMPRESS SHÖKEN FUND

BALANCE SHEET AS AT DECEMBER 31, 1965

ASSETS		CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Swiss Public Securities valued at par (Market value Fr. 187,120.—)	199,000.—	Inalienable capital	389,081.64
Deposit for 3 months (due 9.2.66) with League of Red Cross Societies	304,998.55	Reserve for fluctuation in value: B/fwd from 1964	106,747.10
Cash at the Swiss National Bank, Geneva	26,710.39	Less : Loss on sale of securities in 1965	5,354.50
Cash deposit with the International Committee of the Red Cross	7,843.45		101,392.60
Administration fédérale des contributions, Berne (tax at source, to be reclaimed) . .	1,804.30	Reserve for overheads : B/fwd from 1964	326.85
		Statutory allocation from 1965 income	916.85
			1,243.70
		Less : 1965 overheads	1,431.55
		Excess of 1965 overheads over reserve	(187.85)
		Funds available according to accounts as at December 31, 1965	19,070.30
		Total amount of fund	509,356.69
		Creditors (allocations to be withdrawn)	31,000.—
	<u>540,356.69</u>		<u>540,356.69</u>

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR 1965

EXPENDITURE		RECEIPTS	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
44th distribution of revenue to two National Red Cross Societies, pursuant to the Joint Commission's decision of March 18, 1965 (circular No. 56 of April 11, 1965 . .	22,000.—	Balance brought forward from December 31, 1964	23,649.85
Allocation of 5% of 1965 income for administrative expenses, in accordance with Art. 7 of the Fund regulations	916.85	Income from securities in 1965	18,337.30
Excess of receipts over expenditure: balance available on December 31, 1965	19,070.30		
	<u>41,987.15</u>		<u>41,987.15</u>

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE

4. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE MEDAL FUND

BALANCE SHEET AS AT DECEMBER 31, 1965

ASSETS		CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Swiss Government securities valued at par (market value Fr. 29,440)	32,000.—	Capital	25,000.—
Deposit at Swiss National Bank, Geneva	4,612.20	Reserve :	
Administration fédérale des contributions, Berne (tax paid in advance to be refunded) .	259.20	Balance brought forward from 1964	656.09
		Less :	
		Excess expendi- ture over receipts in 1965	115.55
			540.54
		<i>Total value of funds</i> . . .	25,540.54
		International Committee of the Red Cross :	
		Funds in current account . .	11,330.86
	<u>36,871.40</u>		<u>36,871.40</u>

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR 1965

EXPENDITURE		RECEIPTS	
	Sw. Fr.		Sw. Fr.
Printing costs, circular No. 460	340.—	Income from securities in 1965	931.20
Engraving of 27 medals . . .	292.—	Excess of expenditure over receipts in 1965	115.55
Postage, fees for auditors and safekeeping of securities, sun- dry charges	414.75		
	<u>1,046.75</u>		<u>1,046.75</u>

ACTIVITIES OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE IN 1965

The XXth International Conference of the Red Cross in Vienna, in October 1965, was a landmark in our institution's history.

The Conference was of special importance to the ICRC as it advanced humanitarian law, of which the Committee is a promoter. It also adopted in no uncertain fashion the Red Cross principles, in the drafting of which the Committee took a major part.

Events in the course of the year under review laid a heavy responsibility on the ICRC and confronted it with large-scale practical tasks. In spring there was the crisis in the Dominican Republic, to the abatement of which the Committee's delegates contributed. Later there broke out the Indo-Pakistan conflict in which the Geneva Conventions had to be applied and implemented. As the months went by, the war in Vietnam was intensified, increasing the suffering which the ICRC endeavoured to alleviate in spite of the obstacles placed in its path.

Each year the ICRC publishes its *Annual Report*.¹ This gives an account of the activities carried out by the ICRC based on its neutrality and experience of more than one hundred years. Its tasks were of a practical nature in many countries; some specialized, such as those carried out by the Central Tracing Agency in Geneva, others of a general character, in particular those involving international humanitarian law and others are permanent, such as those concerning news and publications.

The report gives in tabular form details on the ICRC's financial situation; these tables are also reproduced in this issue.

¹ *Annual Report for 1965*, ICRC, Geneva, 80 pp.; available in French, English, Spanish and German (mimeo.). Price Sw. fr. 7.—.

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

STANDING COMMISSION OF THE INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS

The Standing Commission met on October 3 in Geneva under the Chairmanship of the Countess of Limerick.

Whilst admitting that the last International Conferences of the Red Cross had been eminently successful and had fully justified expectations, the Standing Commission thought fit to make a re-examination of the Conference's organization, based on its Regulations, in order to discover whether it should not be adapted on certain points to the evolution of the Red Cross and to modern necessities, with a view to making further improvements in the efficiency of its international sessions.

Therefore, as a start, the Standing Commission has requested the International Committee and the League to set up a joint group to undertake a preliminary study, bearing first of all on proposals made at that meeting by some of its members, and subsequently submit its findings to the Commission.

It also decided to send a questionnaire to all National Red Cross Societies inviting them to send their comments and suggestions in that connection.

Finally, on another subject, the Commission is arranging to send a circular to National Societies asking them to formulate by March 31 next their proposals for the attribution of the Henry Dunant Medal, which, created at the Vienna Conference, will be awarded for the first time in 1967.

LEAGUE OF RED CROSS SOCIETIES

Meetings took place from September 29 to October 8, 1966, at the League's headquarters in Geneva in which participated representatives of many National Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun Societies.

The most important of these was the 86th Session of the Executive Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies. Various other meetings, however, had previously been held, amongst which mention should be made of the Junior Red Cross and the Health and Social Service Advisory Committees which had a joint session on October 3 with a view to studying ways of following up the resolutions of the XXth International Conference concerning the participation by youth and adults in the health educational work of the Red Cross.

The Executive Committee, which numbers twenty-seven members, makes directives to guide the League's activities during the coming year. The 86th Session was opened on October 4 by the League President and President of the Mexican Red Cross, Mr. José Barroso, in the presence of 125 delegates and observers representing fifty-four countries.

The discussions notably bore on the increasingly important rôle of the League in the co-ordination and planning of international disaster relief. The Committee also discussed guidelines for urgent action in the fight against war, disease and natural calamities. Finally, it recommended the implementation of practical projects in such fields as youth in the Red Cross, health education, Red Cross development and planning for relief in disasters.

The Executive Committee, with recommendations from the Junior Red Cross and Health and Social Service Advisory Committees, adopted resolutions appealing :

for youth—especially those from 18 to 25 years—to be more actively involved, alongside adults, in Red Cross health education and other projects, such as the fight against drug addiction, and collaboration in World Health Organization and national health campaigns ;

to long-existent National Societies, to provide funds and experts for Red-Cross development projects in newer nations ; and a challenge to these newer National Societies to provide specific development projects ;

to all countries, as a matter of urgency, to develop comprehensive pre-disaster plans involving Government, Red Cross and other agencies and giving each a specific rôle to play in bringing swift relief to disaster victims ;

to National Societies, reminding them that they have an important rôle to play in their countries' campaigns against small-pox and cardio-vascular diseases.

Other resolutions of a more general character were also adopted. We now reproduce two of these.

The resolution on Peace, as Mr. José Barroso remarked in an address preceding a vote on that text by the Executive Committee, demonstrates the same concern as shown in Vienna at the XXth International Conference of the Red Cross, where various resolutions were passed concerning respect for and the application of the Geneva Conventions. Its text is as given below, together with that of the resolution on the Geneva Conventions recommending the parties to the conflict in Vietnam to give their full support to the International Committee.

RESOLUTION No. 24

The Red Cross and Peace

The Red Cross is closely attached to the cause of peace. Since its origin it has given proof of this in all circumstances and in all ways. Its work is basically a work of peace.

Through motions and resolutions adopted at its many conferences the International Red Cross has often raised its voice for peace. Today it demands that it must be heard.

That is why the Executive Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies with its 200,000,000 members throughout the world is deeply concerned with the prolongation of an increasingly cruel war in South-East Asia. It urges all parties concerned to put an end to it as soon as possible.

The Executive Committee requests the Chairman of the Board of Governors to bring this resolution to the notice of the governments and National Societies.

RESOLUTION No. 25

The Geneva Conventions

The Executive Committee,

Considering that the International Red Cross has repeatedly emphasized by resolutions its stand on world peace and the responsibility of nations to find means of avoiding war through negotiations,

Urges all of those involved in the present conflict in Vietnam to do everything in their power to bring hostilities to an end ;

Meanwhile recalling that in the event of war it is the responsibility of the involved parties to mitigate the suffering and distress of the victims of the conflict,

Urges all the parties engaged in Vietnam to fully support the International Committee of the Red Cross and abide by the Geneva Conventions, and further,

As a gesture of good-will in the first instance, to take immediate action in implementing the section of the Geneva Conventions providing for the repatriation of sick and wounded prisoners of war,

Affirms that the services of the League are always at the disposal of the National Societies of the affected countries for any humanitarian service.

HENRY DUNANT INSTITUTE

The Henry Dunant Institute originates from a very simple establishment of fact. In order to satisfy the requirements of today, every large-scale enterprise has to concern itself with research, training and information. No progress can in fact be made without research, nor can there be efficiency without ever more advanced training nor can exchanges be made without good channels of information.

IN THE RED CROSS WORLD

The Red Cross, which is a great international organization, cannot evade these imperatives of the modern world. The body, which could bring its various activities to a successful issue, was lacking. It therefore had to be created. This has indeed been done with the founding of the Henry Dunant Institute which by the terms of its own statutes is "an instrument of study and research, of training and instruction in all branches of Red Cross work".

The Henry Dunant Institute has just held its second General Assembly. This is therefore a good moment to render an account.

For a further year, the Chairmanship of the General Assembly and of the Council of the Institute will continue to devolve upon Professor A. von Albertini, President of the Swiss Red Cross. Mr. Pierre Boissier has been appointed Director of the Institute.

It is known that the Swiss Federal Houses have voted substantial sums enabling a large building to be erected in the immediate proximity of the International Committee. The three lower floors will house the Central Tracing Agency and the two upper floors will be entirely reserved for the Institute. There will therefore be ample space. A large room, equipped for simultaneous translation and the showing of films, will be available for meetings and conferences, whilst a smaller room will be at the disposal of study groups. There will also be a library and a reading room. Students, persons under instruction and those carrying out research will be able to work in a series of small offices. In addition, it should be pointed out that, at the request of the League of Red Cross Societies, there will be seven small bedrooms on the Institute's premises for passing guests. This then is a fine working prospect for the future. For the moment, the Institute disposes of four offices at the International Committee's headquarters. More accommodation is not required for beginnings which are necessarily modest.

The Henry Dunant Institute is not unprovided with funds. The Centenary Commission of the Red Cross in Switzerland has appointed it its legatee and as such it has received some 700,000 Swiss francs to which have been added most generous donations from Swiss industrial concerns, with the result that the Institute's assets now total a little over one million Swiss francs.

In order to furnish and equip itself and above all to ensure the services expected of it and which it aims to render, the Institute

will subsequently have to dispose of more considerable means. However, at the outset, it proposes to prove itself and demonstrate its usefulness.

The League of Red Cross Societies and the International Committee have already considered entrusting the Institute with important and long-term projects. This, however, will be for a later date. The year 1967 will still be one of preparation.

One of the objects of the Institute is to be a documentary centre in all working spheres of the Red Cross. Without waiting for the completion of its final building, it will call upon a library-documentary list which, with the help of qualified specialists, will set up a very large library card-index. This will be a most valuable working instrument for all those undertaking research in any aspect of the Red Cross or the Law of Geneva. The Institute also hopes to be in a position to produce by next year two publications, one of a legal and technical nature and the other to have the Red Cross better known.

Finally, the Institute proposes to organize a discussion on the theme of "the Red Cross and the World Today". The Red Cross has certainly made great progress over the past hundred years. It may, however, be asked whether at the same time the world has not experienced even deeper transformations. The State's rôle and ascendancy has won over many fields hitherto reserved for private enterprise and new ideologies have become known whose influence is immense. International institutions have sprung up on all sides. In this fresh context is the Red Cross sufficiently up-to-date? Are the methods it employs adequate? This is a matter for most serious study.

There is no doubt that, by committing itself to this path, the Institute will render to the entire Red Cross world services from which it will know how to benefit to a very great extent.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S

PROSTHETIST COURSES IN AFRICA¹

The fitting with artificial limbs of amputated cases raises problems which are more acute in Africa than in many other parts of the world. These prosthetist services are on a modest scale there, still in the planning stage or not yet even envisaged. Only a few African countries possess fitting centres and an even smaller number make artificial limbs. Delay in delivery of prostheses ordered abroad is often considerable, since distances are great and communications difficult.

To create and develop the appropriate services, local personnel must be trained. Aware of needs in this field, thanks to its member associations in Africa and having had the assurance that the government of the Republic of the Ivory Coast would give its full support to such a project, the World Veterans Federation selected Abidjan for the first international Prosthetist Course in Africa. The chief object of this course was to train local personnel with a view to encouraging the creation and development of prosthetist services to rehabilitate ex-servicemen similar to civilian amputees. This was organized under the patronage of the French and Ivory Coast governments, with the participation of the Conference of World Organizations interested in the Handicapped and the co-operation of the United Nations.

Lectures and practical work enabled a review to be made of recent developments in surgical operations, pre- and post-operation treatment of amputees and the different types of artificial limbs for amputees of lower and upper members of the body. The question of constituent parts was also examined, as were the application and alignment of appliances and directions for prostheses according to causes, age and physical condition.

The Course produced several useful ideas, such as the necessity of making artificial limbs more simple, of taking local conditions into account, such as available material, climate, distances, occupa-

¹ *Monde Combattant*, Paris, 1966, No. 158.

tions, and of unifying constituent parts as far as possible. It was also recommended that grants for professional training abroad be made available to African medical and technical personnel, in addition to local apprenticeships, and that international prosthetist courses be organized on a regular footing in Africa.

Twenty-nine persons under instruction and two observers took part in the course. These comprised doctors, surgeons, orthopaedists and prosthetists from thirteen African countries : Central African Republic, Dahomey, Ethiopia, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Madagascar, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Upper Volta.

Special meetings were devoted to the study of problems arising in African countries from dispersed populations mainly in rural areas. These often travel barefoot. Whilst the causes of amputation in Africa are the same as elsewhere, they can often be induced by serpent bites, neglected ulcers, gangrene and leprosy. Other meetings dealt with the rehabilitation of poliomyelitic cases and the problems of leprosy.

EXTRACT FROM THE STATUTES OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

(AGREED AND AMENDED ON SEPTEMBER 25, 1952)

ART. 1. — The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), founded in Geneva in 1863 and formally recognized in the Geneva Conventions and by International Conferences of the Red Cross, shall be an independent organization having its own Statutes.

It shall be a constituent part of the International Red Cross.¹

ART. 2. — As an association governed by Articles 60 and following of the Swiss Civil Code, the ICRC shall have legal personality.

ART. 3. — The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva.

Its emblem shall be a red cross on a white ground. Its motto shall be “*Inter arma caritas*”.

ART. 4. — The special rôle of the ICRC shall be :

- (a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition;

¹ The International Red Cross comprises the National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies. The term “*National Red Cross Societies*” includes the Red Crescent Societies and the Red Lion and Sun Society.

- (c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions;
- (d) to take action in its capacity as a neutral institution, especially in case of war, civil war or internal strife; to endeavour to ensure at all times that the military and civilian victims of such conflicts and of their direct results receive protection and assistance, and to serve, in humanitarian matters, as an intermediary between the parties;
- (e) to contribute, in view of such conflicts, to the preparation and development of medical personnel and medical equipment, in co-operation with the Red Cross organizations, the medical services of the armed forces, and other competent authorities;
- (f) to work for the continual improvement of humanitarian international law and for the better understanding and diffusion of the Geneva Conventions and to prepare for their possible extension;
- (g) to accept the mandates entrusted to it by the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its rôle as a specifically neutral and independent institution and consider any questions requiring examination by such an institution.

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. The number of members may not exceed twenty-five.

SOME PUBLICATIONS OF THE ICRC

The Geneva Conventions of August 12, 1949. 2nd Ed. 1950, 8vo, 245 pp. Sw.Fr. 8.—.

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Claude PILLOUD. **Reservations to the 1949 Geneva Conventions**, 1965, 8vo, 8 pp. Sw. Fr. 2.—

ICRC. **Annual Report 1964**. 1965, 8vo, 80 pp. Sw. Fr. 6.—

PUBLISHED BY THE CENTENARY COMMISSION
OF THE RED CROSS IN SWITZERLAND

World Conference of Educators, (Lausanne, 19-23 August 1963), 1964, 8vo, 205 pp. Sw. Fr. 5.—

International Red Cross Meeting of First-Aiders, Macolin, (Switzerland), 18-24 August 1963, 1963, 8vo, 55 pp. Sw. Fr. 3.—

The Red Cross and Philately (1863-1963), 1965, 8vo, 24 pp., Ill., Sw. Fr. 2.—

Seminar on the activity of the Red Cross on behalf of the victims of armed conflicts, Geneva, August 1963, 1965, 8vo, 238 pp., Ill., Sw. Fr. 7.—

Centenary Congress of the International Red Cross. **Commemoration Day—Council of Delegates**, Geneva 1963, Ill., 120 pp., Sw. Fr. 10.—



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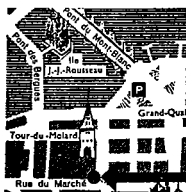
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- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, *Vienna IV*.
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- BURUNDI — Red Cross Society of Burundi, P.O. Box 98, *Bujumbura*.
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- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 22 Kanmien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65 Apartado nacional 1110, *Bogota D.E*.
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- DAHOMEY — Red Cross Society of Dahomey, P.O. Box 1, *Porto-Novo*.
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- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorean Red Cross, Avenida Colombia y Elizalde 118, *Quito*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, Red Cross Road No. 1, P.O. Box 195, *Addis Ababa*.
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- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17, rue Quentin-Bauchart, *Paris (8^e)*.
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- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
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- U.S.S.R. — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Tcheremushki, J. Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow W-36*.
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